Leadership Pamphlet #8 60¢

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A practical aid to leaders in education, government, welfare, health, farm, labor, religion, industry, and the community . . .

TRAINING GROUP LEADERS

Examines the leadership training process, including:

- training patterns and goals
- conditions of good training
- the role of the trainer
- designing training groups
- selecting leaders for training
- checklist of leadership jobs

Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.

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*Prepared collaboratively by Ralph Canter, Hubert S. Coffey, Gordon Hearn, Theodore C. Kroeber, and Irene Fagin, *Univ. of California* (Berkeley); William P. Golden, Jr., *San Francisco State College*; Joseph M. Mjolsness, *American Red Cross*; and Hedley S. Dimock, *San Francisco YMCA*.

Training is an attempt to focus influences on people in order to refashion and improve their conduct in certain specific respects. Men resort to training when they are dissatisfied with the quality of their own performance or that of other people in some situation, or when they confront some new task for which previous training and experience has not equipped them.

Leadership training aims at changes in the performance of people who occupy leadership positions in some organization or agency. The specific content of leadership training will vary widely with the program of the organization, with the particular dissatisfactions felt concerning the quality of leadership, and with the training resources available. But, whatever its specific content, leadership training means an attempt to stimulate and support leaders' efforts to learn knowledges, attitudes and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leadership positions. And usually this means the relearning of old knowledges and skills as well.

INTRODUCTION

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---A DEMOCRATIC REQUIREMENT

DEMOCRACY cannot survive without leadership. The basic tenet of democracy is that given the opportunity, common men have a unique and significant role to play. If men have the opportunity, some may be able to rise to posts of considerable responsibility. All can have a share in making the decisions which determine their destiny. The chance which all people in a democracy have to take part in forming and working out their future makes democracy worth dying for—and certainly worth living for. But men do not assume responsibilities automatically nor do they understand the processes of group decision through intuition or instinct. It takes patient and hard effort and no little skill to provide the kind of leadership which nourishes the democratic way of life.

Any social situation requires leadership of some kind, but a *democratic* situation requires *democratic* leadership. And the kind of leadership training which is fully committed to the belief that groups of people can together solve social problems, however complex, if they know how to think and work together, is no more than an attempt to implement a basic faith in people.

Faith in the common man pervades our conception of leadership training, though we are much more concerned than Americans have been in the past with adequate understanding of how a leader functions, how leadership as a job or function can be distributed within any group, and how the various roles which members play and the responsibilities which they take can contribute to solving the problems that confront the group as a whole. Sometimes the most exciting discovery people make in a group to which they belong is the discovery of the resources which the group has within itself for meeting the problems before it. And this discovery is usually dependent upon the functions of leadership being well handled within

the group. Certainly an assumption of leadership training for us is the belief that wise leadership can develop latent abilities and insights within a group into an active and dynamic force for good. Wise leadership can help raise the energies of each individual to a creative and purposeful level.

Leadership training provides for those who take part a needed vision of what democratic leadership can and should be. Social scientists and practitioners don't know, of course, all of the answers to what develops democratic leadership. But as they work on the problems of leadership training in an experimental way, we suggest that they think and act on the assumption that people can solve these problems best when they work together as a group. We have assumed that as a group learns to work together on common problems, the members develop insight and sensitivity about how to function as members or leaders; they begin to see what a group can be and what leadership can mean. How much more meaningful and forceful are the concepts of what democratic leadership is when these are arrived at through the crucible of analyzed group experience instead of through too-easy verbal acceptance of the standards and shibboleths of an earlier age!

Leadership training translates into active and visible form the principles which we recognize and adhere to as being the essence of the democratic way of life. Leadership training emphasizes respect for the individual and for the creative diversity which individuals bring to a group in the way of talent, ideas, and ideals. It encourages an experimental attitude toward the identification and solution of common problems. It develops a way of working and of accomplishing mutual tasks which is consistent with commonly recognized aims and goals. It adheres to a belief that consent arrived at through discussion not only is an intelligent way for a group to arrive at its decisions but that such consent establishes a responsible framework within which individuals can function freely and responsibly. These are, as we see it, the basic values of democracy and of leadership training as well. ◇◇

CAN TRAINING BE EDUCATION?

THE word *training* isn't in as good repute as once it was. In the area of professional development, it was once common to speak of teacher training, nurses' training, and the training of engineers. The preferred language has come to be teacher education, nursing education, and engineering education. In areas of general human development, physical training has yielded to physical education, art training to art education, and training of the reason to education in thinking. In the general swing from *training* to *education*, the training of boxers, the toilet training of children, and leadership training represent the last strongholds of training in the vocabularies of many thoughtful people.

We cannot wholly explain this shift in language as a change of fashion. A change of fashion it certainly is. But objectionable meanings often given to the word *training* have supported the change. One such objectionable meaning is that training imposes changes

on people. This implies that people in training have no part in choosing what they should learn or how they should learn it. The trainees learn to behave in ways prescribed by the trainers. They are not in rational command of the habits they acquire. The habits are in command of them. The image here might be of circus poodles who have been trained to walk on their hind legs. Their human trainer defined the goal and content of their curriculum and induced them to learn it. If the training was successful, they can walk on their hind legs, but they don't and can't decide why or when to use these laboriously acquired skills. The trainer has still to give the signal, turn the mechanism on or off.

We reject outright any such notion of training leaders. First of all, it can't serve the central purposes for which leader training is organized. Leaders don't operate in unchanging situations. The groups, organizations, and communities in which people lead present changing, not fixed, demands upon leadership. A fixed routine of behavior prevents a leader from responding intelligently and flexibly to these changing demands. Second, it is immoral to influence people in ways which lessen their command of their own powers and energies, which increase their dependence upon the will and judgment of others. To be truly liberating or liberal, any educational effort must leave the learner more fully in rational command of himself, his judgments and his choices, than he was before.

We stand, in this sense, for liberal training of leaders. And this means that they must share in determining the goals and the methods of their education.

Another objectionable meaning is that training imparts skills and techniques without the underlying ideas, attitudes, and values which are necessary to guide their intelligent use and adaptation. Trainees learn how to do something; in leadership training, to lead. They don't learn the whys for leading one way instead of another.

We reject this notion of training, also, and deplore the separation of leadership skills from basic ideas and

values. When a leader chooses to act in one way rather than another, he is not merely choosing one behavioral skill over another. He is also choosing to represent one idea or ideal of leadership over another. He is choosing to serve one set of values rather than another. We believe leaders should be trained to be conscious of what they are choosing. They must explore relevant ideas and values, as well as skills, in their training. They must develop self-insight and self-knowledge along with effective ways of influencing the thinking and behavior of other people. Leadership training, as we conceive it, must meet the highest standards of liberal education.

Why, then, do we persist in speaking of *leadership training?* We believe there is loss as well as gain in translating *training* indiscriminately into *education.* There are some who believe that learning can be liberal only when it is acquired and developed without reference to practical situations in which it will be used. In this view, practice is opposed to liberal education. This view we reject. We believe that ideas and principles of value acquired verbally without reference to their use and application can fail to liberate the conduct of leaders. Such learning may lead to changes in their ways of thinking and talking about leadership without changing their actual practices. Where they are sensitive people, this education may actually multiply their conflicts, because they sense inconsistencies they have not been helped to bridge between their ideas and their actions.

By thinking of leadership development as training we keep the practice element in the educational process. Thinking in terms of training helps us remember that people do not achieve liberated conduct without developed ability to diagnose the leadership requirements of practical situations. It helps us to remember that practice is required to develop diagnostic ability as well as to develop appropriate skills and techniques. If we can remember at the same time that practice cannot be intelligent without an adequate equipment of relevant ideas and principles of value, leadership training can become, as it should be, leadership education at its best.

THE FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

The overall function of leadership is to lead in many different ways, with many kinds of groups, under a variety of circumstances. The functions of a leader are varied and the possible combinations are many. The particular combination for any leader must be worked out in terms of his specific group situation and his own abilities. There are some general functions which will be reflected in each combination. These are the things which enable the leader to act as a sort of catalytic agent through which things happen.

The general functions of leadership would include: helping individuals to become a cooperative group and helping the group:

> to define its purposes,
> to interpret these purposes into practical goals,
> to clarify the assignment of responsibilities,
> to guide the processes of planning,
> to open up the potentialities of available resources,
> to keep operations consistent with purposes and goals,
> to maintain action and change continuously,
> to evaluate efforts and results.

Carrying out these functions requires a close acquaintance with and relation to, the members of the group and a thorough knowledge of the situation.

THE CONDITIONS OF GOOD TRAINING

HOME ECONOMICS WING
24 NOV 1958
EXTENSION TRAINING CENTRE, T. KALLUPATTI

Why are people usually brought together into groups for training? Considerations of convenience and economy provide a part, but only a small part, of the answer. It *is* cheaper and less trouble for twenty people to be brought together to see a demonstration than to provide twenty individual opportunities for this experience. But we need to go deeper in understanding the relations of group memberships to individual behavior to find another more important part of the answer. Experience and research in changing food habits, in altering racial prejudices, in retraining alcoholics, as well as in leadership training, indicate that it is often easier to change individuals as members of a group than to change any one of them separately. For certain kinds of reeducation at least, the training group seems to be a necessity, not just a convenience.

This does not seem so very strange when further results of research in social psychology and anthropology are recalled. Groups exert tremendous pressure upon individual members to conform to the group's norms. To deviate from a group's norms is no easy task for a member, if the group is important to him. Deviation means disapproval, loss of status and influence, perhaps outright rejection. Notions of what is feasible and possible by way of conduct, as well as what is proper and desirable, are bounded for the individual by the norms of the groups in which membership is important to him.

These group effects are often experienced as resistance to training. A speaker who advocates behavior for leaders which violates the customs of their group with

respect to leadership is likely to be seen, at best, as "theoretical" or, at worst, as downright "subversive." A film which shows a meeting run in ways which are markedly different from the ways in which the groups to which trainees belong run their meetings is likely to be regarded as unrealistic or impractical. Changes in performance, or in concepts and attitudes about performance, for that matter, which run against established group customs and mores aren't likely to be seriously considered, let alone accepted by those in training.

But group standards may be brought to the support of training too. If people in training can develop a group of their own in which openness to new ideas and experimentation with new patterns comes to be the group norm, the pressure of the group on the individual member will tend to support change rather than to thwart it. Membership in the training group must become important to its members if its norms are to have power over them. Moreover, their membership in the training group must not be seen by them as involving disloyalty to their groups outside the training situation. They must feel that they have approval from their "home" groups, at least within limits, to experiment, to change, to bring back something new from their training, if full-fledged membership in the training group is to be willingly accepted.

The building of a training group is thus a crucial condition of effective training. And the norms of the training group must be such as to encourage in its members openness to new ideas and experimentation with new patterns and skills, if reeducation is to take place.

communication

A process of training requires free and effective communication between trainees and trainers. Those who seek help through training must communicate their sense of the problems and difficulties with which they need help. Those who give help must communicate their ideas about ways of defining these problems more accurately and about possible solutions to be considered and tried out. Unless free and effective communication can be established, not much reeducation will result.

Communication blocks are of many kinds. Most

people are aware of semantic difficulties due to different vocabularies in the training situation, to different meanings for the same words, to lack of skill in translating meanings from one vocabulary to another or from one point of view to a different one. These blocks to communication are distressingly real. But ways of dealing with them are generally accepted and understood. A speaker can be asked to speak more simply, to translate technical concepts into everyday lanaguage or to provide concrete examples to give them meaning. Non-verbal aids to communication—pictures, demonstrations, experiences—can be brought in to support the spoken word.

Social-psychological blocks to communication are just as real as semantic barriers, though not so generally recognized or understood. Differences in status among members may thwart two-way communication. The boss may not be able to listen to the worker where his ideas and feelings are different; the worker may not be able to talk up to the boss. Differences in power and prestige, too, may block the development of communication in a training group. For example, a trainer may have the opportunity for uninterrupted communication to the trainees. But the return channel for clarification or challenge by trainees may not be provided or may be provided to a very limited degree. Differences in interest create barriers too. Members in a training conference from different parts of an organization or from different organizations bring different frames of reference to the training experience. They see different problems as important. They defend different values. They perceive different threats in new ideas or practices that are proposed.

There is no magical way of overcoming these barriers to free communication. Providing opportunities for face-to-face communication probably offers the best chance for building motivation to communicate across the barriers of differential status, power and interest and for working through these differences to mutual understanding and agreement. For trainers to find better ways to present expert knowledge meets only part of the communication problem. For trainees and trainers alike to find ways of sharing information and experience answers the problem more fundamentally. This means building of small, face-to-face groups into the training design.

practice for reality

People must have an opportunity to practice new ways of behaving, if these are to become a part of themselves. This fact lies behind the frequently stated principle that we learn to do by doing. The principle is true as far as it goes. But doing will lead to desirable learning only if certain conditions are present in the practice situation. What are these conditions?

First, the learner must be free to try something new. This means that he must be free to make mistakes as well as to achieve successes. It is not enough for those in authority to *tell* the person that he is free to experiment with new ideas and new techniques. He himself must *feel* free to venture into new ways of thinking about his job and of doing it. The leader of a P.T.A. study group may be told that she is free to try new ways of getting members to participate. But she may not feel free to depart from the customary ways of the organization. She may feel that the meeting is too important to risk making a mistake. She may feel that she will lose face if she performs awkwardly, as she probably will at first, in trying something she hasn't done before.

It is for these reasons that training in new ways of working often requires that people be taken off the job, where the penalties of failure are too great to risk altering established ways of doing things. If the new skills being learned are skills in dealing with other people, as leadership skills are, this means building a training group in which people are free to practice new ways of leading in situations comparable to their jobs, new ways of dealing with the problems they present. This means, first of all, that everybody in the group be willing to regard himself as a learner and to accept the purpose of the group as helping members work out better ways of dealing with their problems. It means further an expectation that mistakes will be made, a standard that members are not to be laughed at if they are awkward in trying something new, an assumption that members are there to give and receive help from each other.

Second, the learner must be able to see and know the effects which his behavior achieves if he is to weed out

behavior which gets effects he doesn't want and establish those behaviors which lead to the effects he desires. Otherwise he doesn't acquire the *meanings* of his acts as he practices them. Patterns of action controlled by meanings are creative and intelligent. Everyone has looked at a new costume in a mirror in order to see how it will look to some one else and to correct it in order to get the visual effects desired. Many have listened to their voices in a recording to hear how they sound and to practice ways of speaking which will get the auditory effects they want. This process of getting feedback on the effects of what we do, in order to improve what we do in terms of better achieving some desired effect, is a part of all intelligent practice.

How does a leader hold a mirror up to his behavior so he can find where it needs modifying and so that he can practice new behaviors until they achieve the effects he wants to achieve? Here again the training group provides a crucial condition of effective practice. A leader in training needs to know how his behavior affects the people he is leading. Often on the job, it is hard to get objective reports of feelings and reactions to the leader's acts from the members. In a training group in which people are free to be honest without being vindictive, a leader in training can get dependable feedback on the effects both of his established ways of leading and of new ways which he is trying out. One of the main ways in which a training group can help each member is to furnish data to him about how his behavior affects the other members of the group and to help him plan and practice new behavior which gets more of the effects he wants.

involvement

So far the emphasis has been upon the training group as providing crucial conditions for effective training. This emphasis does not mean that the individual's relations to the process of training are not also crucial.

First in importance among these is that the trainee be ego-involved in the training program. Ego-involvement means more than interest as that term is usually used. Nearly everyone who takes part in a training program is interested to some degree. But often this interest persists

only during the training meetings. No effects carry over from the meetings to his life outside. Ego-involvement means commitment on the part of the trainee to changes in his attitudes, knowledge and conduct which endure after the training as such is completed.

Involvement means that the individual's self—his needs and his goals—become so interrelated with the training experience that he sees the training as a way of satisfying these needs and achieving these goals. If we think of the self as having surface regions as well as central regions, we may say that interest taps the surface regions while ego-involvement enlists the central regions of the person in the training activities. The trainee must see that needs, basically important to him, will be met through the training, if ego-involvement is to occur.

If the training is seen as a threat to basic need-satisfactions it will be resisted. This accounts for some of the resistances of leaders to training designed to help them function more democratically. If the leaders feel, more or less consciously, that the main satisfactions from leadership come from exercising authority over others, and if the training in democratic methods is seen as reducing these satisfactions, the training will be regarded as a threat to need-satisfaction. If leaders cannot come to see that training in democratic methods of leadership can serve important personal needs, ego-involvement in support of the training will be missing and little positive effect from the training will result.

Ego-involvement on the part of trainees doesn't just happen. Certain psychological requirements need to be met in setting up the training, if it is to occur. Five requirements may be mentioned.

1. The goals of the training must be based upon the needs of those being trained.
2. The connection between training goals and his needs as he perceives them must be seen by the trainee.
3. The training content—problems, issues, information, skills—must be seen by the trainee as in some sense applicable to his on-the-job situation.
4. Trainees must be encouraged to assess the effects of changing their behavior, both here and now and on the job after the training. They must be encouraged to assess realistically the obstacles to changing

their behavior when they get back on the job.
5. The training experience must open up for trainees possible channels of applying what they have learned, of acting differently in the real world as a result of new ways discovered and tried out in the training world.

participation

Participation by trainees in their own training is a key means toward ego-involvement. But, in addition, training which is to be effective is not something that trainers do *to* people. It is something that they (and other trainees) do *along with* people.

If there is one principle upon which educational psychologists are agreed, it is that the learner must participate actively in the learning process if his behavior is to be significantly affected by it. He must think problems through for himself and not rely passively upon his teachers or fellow students.

What does this principle mean in planning and conducting a training program? It means in general that *trainees must share in planning, in carrying out, and in evaluating the training program.* Only as trainees participate along with the trainers in identifying the problems which are important to them will a training agenda take shape that makes sense to everybody, an agenda on which everyone is ready to go to work. This doesn't mean that the trainer hasn't a job to do during the identification of training problems. His job is to see that common elements among apparently diverse problems are seen by the training group and that these problems get stated in a form which releases a number of hypotheses and approaches as possible solutions. Where only one solution is considered, not much learning at the level of ideas takes place.

Participation is required, also, during the stage of discussing the problems. Plans, approaches, ideas should come from all the training group, not just from the trainer. This is important partly because a better stock of ideas is usually produced this way. It is also important because trainees need experience in all stages of problem identification and solution, if they are to function more inde-

pendently and responsibly when the training is over.

During the stage of tryout and evaluation, both in the training group and on the job, participation by the trainees is also needed. The training gets its crucial test in its application. The data needed for evaluating the effectiveness of training and in supplementing it where it turns out to have been faulty must come from the people actually involved in the trial.

a sense of belonging

Every learning experience involves some upset to established ways of doing things. When leaders are asked to learn to behave differently, their former ways of leading are called into question. Unless trainees become dissatisfied with their present ways of working, motivation to learn new ways will not develop. To take away the security of a trainee in his present way of doing his job can be very threatening to his status, his pride, his confidence in his own ability. If the trainee feels that he must defend himself against the influence of the training or the trainer, not much desirable learning will take place.

How can the insecurities, always present in some degree in training, be reduced to a minimum? Part of the answer lies in the building of a training group to which each trainee belongs and wants to belong. Isolated individuals feel more threatened by a challenge to their customary ways of thinking and doing than do individuals who belong to a group. Everybody in the training group is in the same boat. It is not unusual there to have deficiencies and difficulties.

Another part of the answer lies in the participation by all individuals in determining what problems are to be dealt with in training and at what rate. Individuals who have a say in what the training group is to work on are much less likely to have all their security props knocked out from under them at once.

Finally, a trainee who is asked to give up an old way of working but who is offered something better to put in its place isn't likely to feel insecure as a result of his training. This is more true if he can practice, as well as discuss, the new way before he is asked to try it out in the realities of the job situation. ◇◇

THE ROLE OF THE TRAINER

The conditions of effective training just reviewed put emphasis upon the assumption of responsibility by the trainee in setting the goals and tempo and in evaluating the outcomes of his training. True enough, the trainee, particularly in leadership training, needs other trainees to work with him. He needs a training group. But in that group the ultimate control rests with the members of the group, not with the training leader.

If the conditions of effective training require this emphasis upon trainee responsibility, where does expertness and training leadership fit into the picture? One might specify as another condition of effective training that the training group have access to the resources they need—resources of knowledge, skill, technique, evaluated experience. To stress that trainees learn from each other does not mean that they do not also use other resources, whether these take the form of readings, consultants, motion pictures, expert demonstrations, or any other. Part of the task of leadership in the training group is to help trainees to determine what outside resources they need from time to time and to use these thoughtfully and efficiently. It is also true, however, that the task of leadership may as often be to discourage dependence on such resources as a substitute for the trainees' own thinking, as to stimulate them to find and use resources.

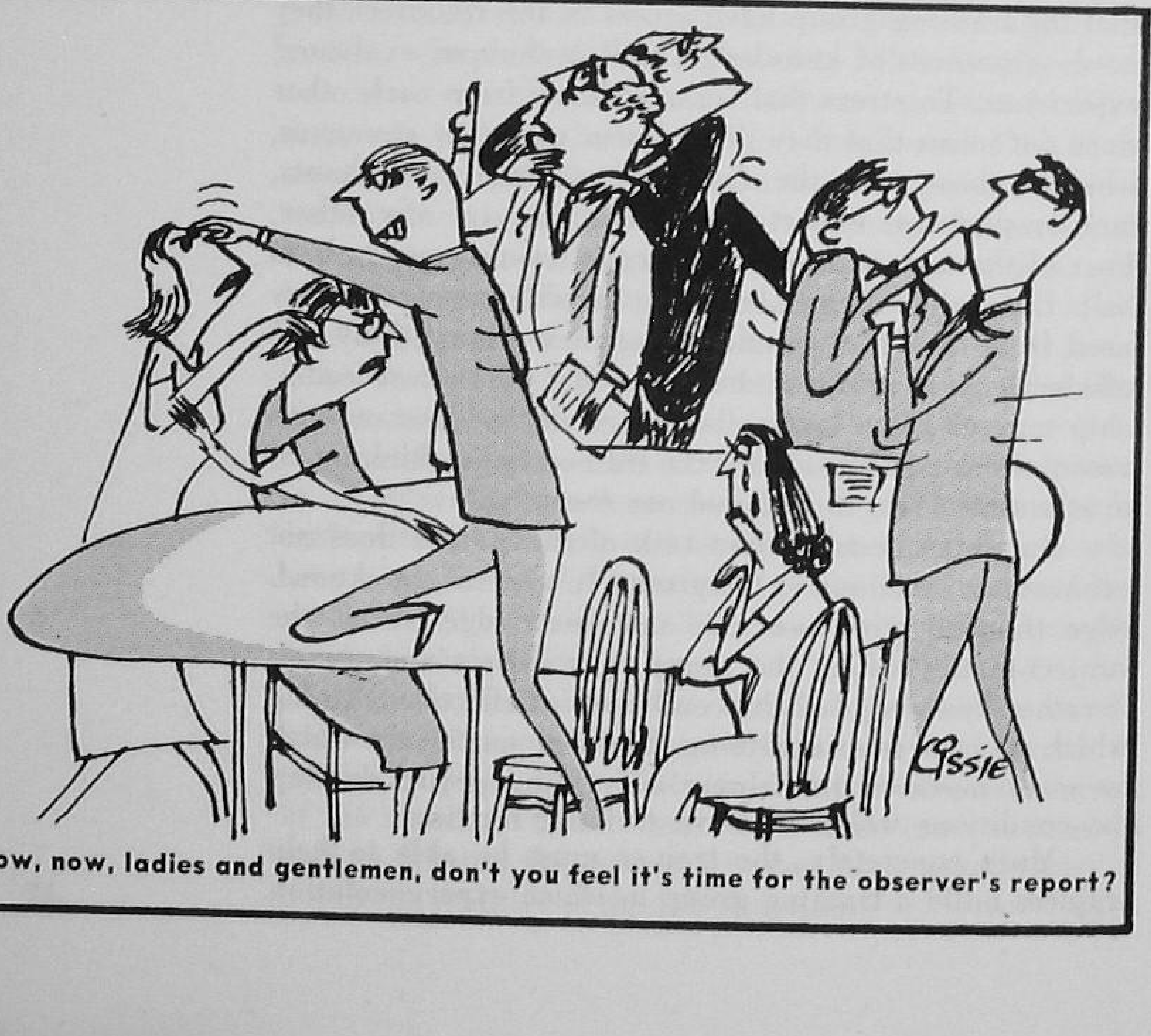
But this one important task of the trainer does not exhaust his functions in the group. In general, the knowledge that he most needs is not knowledge of all the subject-matter which the group may collect and use. It is rather knowledge of the conditions of effective training which we have been analyzing. And the competence which he most needs is in helping a training group develop the conditions which effective training requires.

More concretely, the trainer must be able to help trainees build a training group in which experimentation

is honored, in which a method of responsible problem solving becomes the way in which difficulties are clarified and dealt with as they arise, in which individual and group practice is guided by the collection of accurate data about the effects of behavior and by the objective interpretation and evaluation of such data.

The trainer must be dedicated to the development of maximum learning on the part of every individual in the group. This means he must be skilled in helping each individual to become involved in defining and working out his own problems, in participating actively in the life of the training group, in attaining and maintaining personal security as he changes and improves his ideas, his attitudes and his conduct.

In a very real sense, the trainer embraces the methods of scientific problem solving and democratic cooperation as his central devotions. His efforts are directed to helping other people accept and use these methods effectively in improving the quality of their performance throughout the range of their personal and organizational lives. ◇◇



Now, now, ladies and gentlemen, don't you feel it's time for the observer's report?

THE TRAINING PROCESS

Training for improved leadership falls into three phases. In the *first phase* the leader-in-training identifies where he needs to change his performance and learns to think about his problems objectively. In *phase two* he practices improved ways of planning and performing as a leader with the help of others. And in *phase three* he transfers what he has learned from the training sessions to his actual job of leadership.

Phase One

GETTING READY TO CHANGE

People tend to resist change in order to protect the valued aspects of their past experience. Often the reasons behind this resistance are quite sound. They furnish much of the substance for critical thinking and should be valued and used in training wherever problems are being selected and defined. As leaders, people usually will not be willing to work on their basic problems of leadership, they will not feel ready to change, until they are assured that the training experience will really benefit them. Above all, they must feel that it won't clash with their own values and goals or those of outside groups or organizations to which they feel committed. The initial phase of training must set at work processes which will provide these assurances while the group is mapping out desirable directions for change.

One of the greatest deterrents to change may be the attitude that in the rough and tumble of the real world it is dangerous to reveal one's own inadequacies. Yet these must be brought out if any thoroughgoing analysis of actual problems is to be accomplished. Countless everyday examples of people being punished in one way or another for revealing personal inadequacies or for exposing unpleasant facts continually reinforce this fear.

Because leaders are human, when they enter training programs they are bound by their knowledge that such punishments exist. If people are to talk freely about their real problems of leadership, the training program must afford protection against these threats so frequently found in the outside world. The training program must build a laboratory where participants can feel free to talk about their actual problems and discuss them with other people. They must be able to examine experimentally the effects of their leader and member behavior on others as well as their own reactions to the behavior of other people.

The relationships built among the participants in the first phase of training are crucial in establishing a feeling of freedom. Good relationships are most likely to be built if there is ample opportunity for each member to participate actively and to interact with other members, but if no one feels pushed into participation or out of it. One of the best ways of getting members to accept and feel comfortable with one another in the early stages of training is to employ methods which allow the group to work at least part of the time in units of three or four persons. By having a chance to talk with only two or three others at a time, no one feels like a public speaker addressing a sea of unknown faces. Furthermore, each person has more of an opportunity to get to know what other members are like, and to become known by them.

Meeting together in informal social activities outside the training situation may help members to build relationships of mutual acceptance and understanding.

Often, another kind of resistance will develop in a program which appears to superimpose changes determined by someone outside or which presses participants into a preconceived mold as "trainees." It is extremely important that the training be related to the needs and

interests of the participants, and that all members play a part in determining what main emphases the training will include.

One way of insuring that the program will be related to the needs of participants is to build its content out of the problems which the leaders are facing in their work settings. This procedure has the additional advantage of bridging the gap between the training situation and the outside world.

With what activities should the group start its work? People often resist change because they feel that the changes required are too difficult to make. It is wise to begin with activities in which the group is likely to experience quick success. Generally those things which are most closely associated with skills and experience already familiar to the leaders will seem easiest. A group of discussion leaders, for example, would be likely to feel greater success in dealing with leadership problems through role playing a discussion group than through role playing a recreation situation. Recreational leaders would probably take hold more quickly of a recreation situation for purposes of analysis.

Leaders in training also develop resistance because of too great self-consciousness. It is normal for people to compare their performance, their knowledge and skill to those of others. However, too much pressure to be self-evaluative and to be analyzed by others, may create a frame of mind inimical to change. One of the ways to help people get ready to change, therefore, is to encourage each person to consider his present performance not in comparison with that of others but in relation to his own potential and his own unique situation. The training group can be encouraged to help solve the problems of the members, not to evaluate their worth as persons.

A danger is always present, when a leader solicits statements of problems, that a particular participant will be forever identified with a problem he offers for consideration. The training leader may ask others for examples of the same problem to show how common, rather than personal, it actually is.

In spite of the training-leader's efforts to depersonal-

ize problems, some problems may still be felt as too personal or too complex to be productively discussed in terms of the group members' own experiences. For such problems, films or reports of case studies have the advantage of presenting material revelant to these problems out of an "external" and unthreatening setting.

As the training group achieves the freedom necessary to look at its own problems objectively, it must also try to learn to define the problems in such a way that effective solutions can be worked out. It must try to acquire an experimental attitude toward the problems proposed and discussed.

There are a number of common barriers to an experimental attitude.

(1) Members may have the attitude that there is some pre-existing answer to their problem, and that the training-leader ought to know it.

(2) Leaders-in-training may not distinguish between symptoms of problems and real problems that are capable of solution. The "problem" of the over-talkative member, for example, is actually a symptom. It may be caused by many different factors in the person who talks too much or in the group. It can't be dealt with intelligently until the probable elements causing this behavior have been identified. One of the most important things a leader-in-training can acquire is the habit of looking for causes of behavior instead of treating symptoms directly by standard tricks of leadership.

(3) Everyone has the tendency to overlook himself, his own attitudes and behaviors, as an important element in determining the nature of a leadership problem. Learning to see how one needs to modify his own behaviors and attitudes as well as how others need to change in order to solve a problem is the beginning of wisdom in training.

The best way to overcome these barriers is to become aware of them and bring them to light when they halt the progress of training.

The more sensitive a group becomes to all of its reluctances to make changes, the more able it will become to deal with them. One major task of leadership training is to help all members develop this sensitivity.

Phase Two

MAKING THE CHANGE

What men and women learn in leadership training

will not be used in a vacuum or in utopia. They will put their learning to work in real-life situations in which there are many forces operating to support changes, and many forces resisting changes in their behavior as leaders. In fact, there are forces supporting and resisting changes in their conduct as members of the training group, too, even though, as discussed in the last section, the opposing forces are reduced to a minimum.

Making a change in a pattern of behavior, whether in a specially prepared training situation or on the job, requires a decrease in the forces resisting change or an increase in the forces supporting change, or both. Let's see what this means more concretely.

Suppose, for example, that discussion leaders in a training seminar have come to feel that there is not enough leader-member planning in their discussion groups at home. They want to change from leader-planned and assigned agendas toward agendas developed through member participation. This change, they realize as they talk about it, won't come about just because they agree it is a good idea. They must reckon with the forces which operate to keep leader-planning and assignment more or less established as standard practice.

They discuss the forces operating in all of their situations, such as the general climate of public opinion and the fact that leaving present methods and trying a new one may make them, like anyone else, feel insecure and uncertain about how it will work out.

Then each one makes a list of the forces that support a change toward more leader-member participation in planning, in his or her individual situation, and the forces that oppose change.

Mrs. Jones' list comes out like this:

Forces supporting the change toward more leader-member planning:

a Her belief that more cooperation will be a definite improvement;

b Her feeling, since her experience in the training group, that, if the members cooperate, she will be able to do her part as discussion leader (and she now has the support of knowing the other members of the training group agree with her);

c The sponsoring organization professes a philosophy of democratic participation by members;

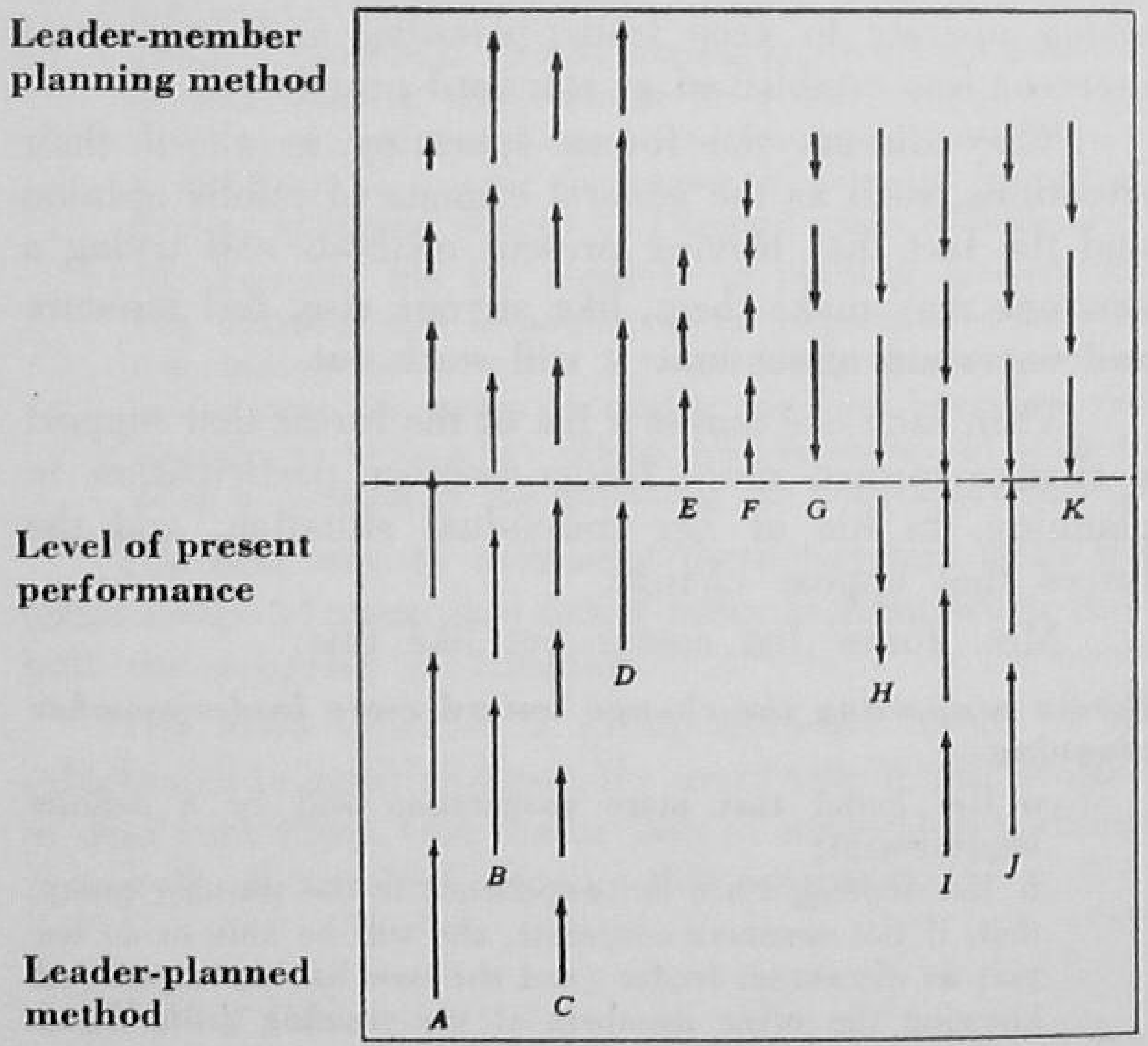
d Some members have indicated a willingness, if not a desire, to take a more active part in planning for the group;
e Some discussion groups in other organizations have been developing greater member participation and the word has got around;
f Some members will support change out of a sense of duty to rebel against what is and has been.

Forces resisting the change:

g She fears criticism if it doesn't work out well;
h Her best friend says it's nonsense;
i Some members will resist any change;
j The director of the organization will avoid committing himself;
k The director's secretary will drag her feet if it requires more mimeographing, mailings, phone calls, etc.

After the leaders-in-training have identified these forces for and against the change they want to make, they may wish to see them in relation to each other. One way to do this is to make a chart of the positive and negative forces at work.

Here is a chart of the forces Mrs. Jones listed above:



FORCES (Length of arrows indicates relative strength.)

As the chart shows, the force field is made up of a number of forces of varying strengths that oppose each other. The strength of any force may vary depending on how far performance changes from its present level. In the chart, ***supporting force b*** (confidence in her skill) is likely to become stronger as she has some success with her home group. ***Restraining force j*** (the reluctance of the director to commit himself) is likely to diminish after initial change is successfully made. On the other hand, ***supporting force f*** (trying to keep up with other organizations) is likely to get less as the gap between the practice of her organization and other organizations narrows.

Present performance is at the level where the upward and downward forces are in balance. Changes can occur only as the forces are modified so that the level at which they are in balance is changed.

Resisting forces can be reduced or removed. She may be able to get the director to commit himself favorably. She may be able to get volunteers to relieve the secretary of the extra work load which the change might entail. The forces for status-quo can often be mobilized to permit if not actively to support change. She may get all of the members to go along with a trial of the new method with a definite date at which it will be evaluated again.

Supporting forces can be increased or new ones added. She may get the Board of Directors of her organization to support the changes as being in line with the organization's philosophy (and more in line with the progressive practices of other organizations). This may change the director's attitude, ***force j.*** (She can bring in examples of what other discussion groups have done by way of cooperative planning to increase ***force d.***)

Or, sometimes, the present direction of forces can be changed. (She might make a believer out of her best friend.)

As a result of this kind of analysis, Mrs. Jones, or any other leader-in-training, can approach the problem of introducing change back home much less in the dark and with a much clearer understanding of what needs to be done, what might be done first, second and third, and what more she needs to do now in the training group to learn to carry out the strategy she has accepted. For example, if Mrs. Jones decides the most

strategic first step is to present her case to the Board of Directors, she may role play her appeal with other leaders-in-training acting as members of her Board. As they discuss what happened, she can develop much clearer ideas both of what she can hope to accomplish through her appeal (goal) and what constitutes an effective and an ineffective appeal (means).

Phase Three

TRANSFERRING CHANGES BACK-HOME

Improved leadership performance, if it is to be transferred from training sessions to every-day behavior, needs support and reinforcement after the training as well as in the training group.

One kind of reinforcement can be provided in the training sessions themselves by relating the training to the reality as perceived by the members. Examples used in training can be drawn from experiences similar to the actual experiences of the members. Role playing can be used to try out and practice new ways of behaving in true-to-life situations. Role playing has the advantage of providing a practice setting in which people can make mistakes, or even fail, without ruining themselves or their organization.

Skilled practitioners can be brought into the training program to give consultation about conditions as they are, and to help the group understand the difficulties they are likely to meet and how they might overcome them.

Leaders-in-training can reinforce each other by building an awareness of common problems and by recognizing each other's accomplishments. And persons who are held in high esteem by the members (bosses particularly) can give their blessing to the training and indicate their interest in making improvements in the home setting.

But leadership training cannot simply stop at the end of the training sessions. Newly-learned ideas, skills or attitudes may become extinct under the pressure of contrary forces.

Plans for some kinds of social reinforcement on the job can be made during the training program. Participants can make arrangements to work with or consult

with each other on leadership problems as these come up. They can plan to meet together or to correspond with each other to exchange information and experiences. They can identify consultants available in their communities and plan how to use them. They can predict their needs for continued training, supervision, and help as they try to put what they have learned into practice.

The organization in which they will use their learnings from leadership training can provide the greatest degree of social reinforcement. It can provide opportunities for continuing staff (or volunteer) training and development programs. It can make needed tools for continued training readily available for use, through libraries, exhibits and outside consultation. And it can provide for periodic evaluation of progress.

Improved leadership behavior cannot be maintained without social reinforcement. Plans for such reinforcement should be built into the training program. This need can be recognized even before the actual training program begins. An organization might well plan to send pairs or teams of leaders, rather than isolated individuals, for training. And the organization might well discuss needed changes with leaders before they start their training so that readiness for putting learnings into effect will have been developed when they come back from their training experience. The greatest benefits from the time and resources spent in training will be derived by organizations which accept the need for continuous training of all of its personnel, leaders and members. In this setting, isolated training experiences cease to be isolated and become part of a continuing program of organizational improvement. ◇◇

DESIGNING THE TRAINING GROUP

JUST as a composer selects sounds and groups them in a specific way in order to produce desired musical effects; just as a painter selects and composes lines and masses and colors to effect a design he envisions; so the people setting up a training program need to compose the groups used in training. They need to select the kinds of people and the number of people to work in each group in order to get the effects which training objectives call for. The members work out what actually takes place. But what kinds of effects they can achieve and what they can't depend pretty fundamentally on the human ingredients of the group in which they work.

If we look at the problem of grouping people for training as a problem in composition, we confront questions as to size or as to how different or how alike (how heterogeneous or homogeneous) the members should be, questions as to what part the personal likes and dislikes of members for each other should play in determining who will work together in one particular group.

How large should a training group be? The objectives of training impose limits on group size. If the objectives require active participation by the trainees, then the size of the group should be kept down to the point where face-to-face talking things over is possible. If, on the other hand, the purpose of training at a given point is to pass along information, a large meeting will work just as well as a small group and more economically.

Not only the question of how many people should be in a group but the question of what kinds of personnel should be included comes up when people are composing a training group. How much difference among members can a group use to good effect? There are a great number of dimensions of difference—age, sex, educational background, and social status, for example. In deciding how much difference and what sorts of difference should be present in any one group, people need to consider the objectives of training. A training group for the youth leaders of a community might best be heterogeneous as to educational background and socio-economic status but homogeneous as to age. A training group for principals of nursery schools might be heterogeneous as to age, but homogeneous in educational background. In general it is necessary to bring together the kinds of individuals who will make it possible for the group to accomplish its training objectives. More specifically, the group will need to have in it at some time within the period during which it works all of the skills and types of knowledge and experience required for the group to deal adequately with whatever problem it is facing.

Although dimensions of difference other than that of status or level of operation within an organization are important in composing a group, here for the sake of illustration this one dimension is developed in detail and with examples. If, for instance, the training group aims to develop better communication between levels of a hierarchical industrial organization, it will be necessary to involve at some time individuals from all levels of the organization. Sometimes, not only people from levels within an organization, but from affected or interested groups or areas outside the organization should share in the training. A school system may want to set up a training group in preparing personnel for a new and experimental program of teaching in the secondary schools. Apart from the skills and understandings required in the actual instruction, something in the way of interpreting the new methods to the school children's parents will be called for, and something in the way of a public-relations job with the community at large too, so that the full training problem requires the collaboration of both administrative and teaching personnel, and selected

parents and community leaders. Teachers, administrators and leaders from outside the professional staff need to be brought into the training group at one time or another.

Heterogeneously structured groups of this sort are desirable in a training situation where communication needs to be established between different levels of an organization or between different interest groups. They are necessary too where the training problem involves a whole institution or organization and where leadership needs to be developed and re-educated at several different levels.

On the other hand, the objectives of training may require a more homogeneous group. A company may want its foremen to learn more effective human-relations understandings and skills in dealing with their men. Here where the problem is one which belongs rather explicitly to people at one level of operation, it might be confusing to introduce people from other levels of the organization. Foremen training groups should be

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

Advantages:

1. Develops strong identification more easily because of likeness of members. Develops "we-feeling" easily.

2. Encourages a feeling of safety in ventilation of feelings, and group self-examination because "outsiders" are not present.

3. Develops support for future responsibility and initiative by one level or area in its relations with other levels or areas.

Disadvantages:

1. Limits perspective of group because of initial similarity in outlook of members.

2. Limits knowledge particularly with respect to determining the realities of the situation.

3. Easily achieved "we-ness" may become complacency and may operate as resistance to further change.

composed of foremen. Generally speaking, homogeneously structured groups are called for when the training objectives require the exploration of problems which people at one level of an organization can solve by themselves.

The problems to be solved, the goals to be reached—the objectives of training in a word—rather than any sentimental desire for wide representation *per se* should logically determine the best kind of composition for any group. If, for example, the PTA organization in a city wants to improve its leadership for the following year's program, should it include in the same training group both presidents of the local PTA's and program chairmen? The program chairmen would certainly be needed, but whether the presidents should be members too will depend in part on whether the changes in the program which are contemplated will require new skills and understandings for the presidents as well as for the program chairmen. Will the changes, for example, call for a new way of conducting business meetings or a new

HETEROGENEOUS GROUPING

Advantages:

1. Stimulates because of differences in points of view, experiences, values, and goals of members.

2. Increases breadth of viewpoint because of variety of experiences and differences in perceptions if members are able to establish communication.

3. Makes actual forces toward changes more effective because the total organization or community can be seen by all the group through the eyes of representatives of different levels or areas.

Disadvantages:

1. Brings out threats involved in different status relationships.

2. Tends to prevent communication and to lead to discouragement because of the diversity of experiences and values which need to be integrated.

relationship between business sessions and the programs in the meetings? If so, the presidents will need to be in on the training too. If, on the other hand, the purpose of the training is to learn better ways of program presentation only—how to use panels, for example—then the program chairmen might better meet alone. (Some of the relative advantages and disadvantages of heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings are suggested in the chart at the bottom of the page.)

The quality of interpersonal relationships which exist among individuals is another factor to consider in determining who should belong to a group. Trainers are sometimes reluctant to face the fact that people who are congenial will work more easily together in a training group than people who are uncongenial. Should a trainer encourage people to choose the others they like to work with, or should he try to get people who are needed there because of other reasons, but who are personally unfriendly, to work together in the same group? What he decides to do may depend on how much stability the group has and how much time is available for the members to stay together in training. Sociometric studies indicate that people who like to work together will get more work done in training groups than people who attempt to work together although they are antagonistic toward each other. And indeed groups in which there are too many uncongenial people fail to accomplish much. On the other hand, where there is good reason to believe that a group can develop sufficient solidarity, and has enough time, to help antagonistic people face their human relations problems constructively, it may be good leadership training to have a group in which some members are not overly congenial to begin with.

The question of how to compose a training group will have to be answered in terms of the specific situation to be met, the exact tasks to be done, the time available for training, the primary objectives to be reached. However, if size, heterogeneity and homogeneity, and sociometric relationships (the likes and dislikes members have for each other) are understood and taken into account in composing the groups in a training program, the effects desired from training will be left less to the caprices of chance and can be at least partially guaranteed.

SELECTING LEADERS FOR TRAINING

How can we ensure that the leaders of an organization will possess attitudes appropriate to their roles? There are two possible solutions. One solution is to select, as leaders, those people who already have the desired set of attitudes and orientations. Select pro-management workers as foremen; select pro-union workers as union stewards; select enthusiastic and group-identified club members for key posts. No fuss, no bother—assuming you are successful in choosing the right man for the right job. But this might be easier said than done.

The second solution is to let the role itself do the trick. Place a person in a leadership role and see if the role itself produces the desired pattern of attitudes and orientations. This is the solution that the grade school teacher uses when she takes the most obstinate youngster in class and makes him the class monitor. The result is often a dramatic reform in the youngster as rebelliousness goes by the boards and he emerges a staunch defender of classroom law and order. And in the same way: make a worker pro-management by putting him in the foreman role; make a worker pro-union by putting him in the steward role; make a club member more active and more responsible by *giving* him responsibilities to fulfill, obligations to meet, duties to carry out.

How should we choose our leaders? Should we select them "already made?" Or should we depend on the role to make them? A general answer to this question is difficult to arrive at, but some clues and insights are

obtained from a recent study. Let's look at the results of the study and see what they tell us.

the Rockwell story

The study was carried out in a medium-sized factory engaged in the production of home appliance equipment. Let's call it the Rockwell Home Appliance Corporation. Rockwell is situated in a small Midwestern town with a population of around 12,000. Most of the workers are on semi-skilled jobs and have, on the average, some high school education.

Back in 1951, we administered paper-and-pencil attitude questionnaires to the entire rank-and-file, non-supervisory factory population at Rockwell—roughly 2,500 in all. There was a wide variety of questions dealing with the workers' jobs. How did they feel about their wages? Physical working conditions? The interest of their work? A number of questions also had to do with how they felt about the company and the union. Did they think management officers were looking out for the workers' welfare? How about the union officers? How much was the union doing for them? How would things be if there were no union at Rockwell? How was Rockwell as a place to work? How did it compare with other companies?

In the next 12 months, during the normal course of things, a number of personnel changes took place in various leadership positions at Rockwell. On management's side, some new departments were created and some old ones expanded. On the union's side, annual steward elections were held. As a result, a number of rank-and-file workers moved into leadership positions. By going back and re-interviewing these workers after they had changed roles, as well as some workers who had not changed roles, we had an excellent opportunity to study two kinds of questions:

(1) What are the characteristics of workers who are chosen for leadership roles at Rockwell? What are their attitudes and orientations? Are pro-management workers the ones who tend to be selected as foremen? Are pro-union workers the ones selected as stewards?

(2) What happens to workers once they are placed in leadership roles? Do the roles change their attitudes and orientations? Does being placed in the foreman role re-

sult in a worker's becoming more pro-management? Does being made a steward make a worker more pro-union?

By comparing the attitudes of workers both before and after they changed roles, we had the basic data to answer our questions.

what did we find?

Are pro-management workers made foremen? Are pro-union workers made stewards? The answer to both questions seems to be: no! If anything, there was some indication that the workers who were later chosen for leadership roles tended to be both *anti*-management and *anti*-union. They were critical of both management and union policies, and were somewhat inclined to feel that the top officers of management and the union were not too deeply concerned about the workers' welfare. These findings held for both workers who were made foremen and workers who were made stewards. *Management and the union were apparently—although not consciously—choosing their leaders from the more dissident, dissatisfied elements of the rank-and-file worker population.*

However, selecting the more dissatisfied workers as leaders was not necessarily a bad thing. Although the leaders-to-be were somewhat critical of the company and the union, they also had a number of positive traits. They tended to be better educated than the rest of the workers at Rockwell. They came from the higher-skilled jobs. They were more verbally facile—they did a better and more complete job of filling out the questionnaires. They were ambitious and interested in getting ahead—they *wanted* to become foremen or stewards, although *not* because they were pro-management or pro-union. These traits seems to add up to a picture of the leaders-to-be as being alert, able, and competent—traits which might be partly responsible for their tendency to be dissident and critical.

Apart from whether the leaders-to-be were able and competent, an equally crucial question is: did their dissidence or dissatisfaction prevent them from taking on the values of management or the union once they were made representatives of management or the union? Apparently not. A short time after workers moved into the foreman and steward roles, rapid and remarkable changes

in attitudes were observed. The workers who became foremen came to see Rockwell as a better place to work; they compared it more favorably with other companies as a place of employment; they had more pleasant remarks to make about the top officials of management. Similarly, the workers who became stewards became more favorably disposed toward labor unions in general; they more often felt that the maintenance of the union was important to the welfare of the workers at Rockwell; their opinions and estimations of the top officers of the union went up. Both groups came to see things in a new light. The role itself—along with various forces associated with it—had apparently done the trick!

The results of the study at Rockwell suggest that just because a group member is critical of the way the group or organization is run is no reason, in itself, to disqualify him from leadership positions in the organization. If he has the ability, the experience and the know-how, then the griper or recalcitrant in an organization might, potentially, make an excellent leader. Being disgruntled or dissatisfied may simply be a sign that he is involved in or concerned about the organization. A person who is not particularly concerned about the organization will probably not even be interested enough to gripe about it or to criticize it.

applying the Rockwell findings

The question then becomes: how can we channel the recalcitrant's involvement and energies into paths that are useful for the effective functioning of the organization? One solution that is suggested here is to give him important duties to carry out. If he has the ability to handle a key role, being in such a role will give him new sources of gratification and a stronger stake in the organization. Moreover, being in a responsible role will allow him to see things from a new vantage point. He will be in a clearer position to see the problems that leaders have to face, the difficulties that they run into, the contingencies that always seem to crop up. And from this new vantage point, he will be more likely to accept the goals and values of the organization.

These findings fit in well with other research results. A number of studies have shown that giving group mem-

bers greater participation will go a long way toward bringing about greater involvement in the goals of an organization. French and Coch found that productivity shot up when girls in a pajama factory were given some "say" in changing methods of operation and in setting up production schedules. Morse found that the morale of clerks in an insurance firm went up when they were given more authority and responsibility in deciding how their jobs were to be carried out and in controlling various other aspects of their job situations. The employees were no longer in a position where they simply took orders and carried them out. In a very real sense, they had been placed in new roles in their organizations, just as were the workers who became foremen and stewards at Rockwell. And with these new roles came a greater awareness and acceptance of the goals of their organizations.

A lament is often heard about the lack of leadership material to choose from in selecting leaders. One reason that leadership material seems to be scarce is that we find it difficult to visualize people who occupy one role as occupying another role. This is particularly true when we visualize taking a person out of a less responsible role and placing him in a more responsible one. How many of us can readily "see" a non-supervisory worker as the boss, or the boss as a member of the rank-and-file? Somehow we take people as we meet them, and pigeonhole them into the roles in which we find them. A danger may be present in giving responsibility to people who are *not* qualified to handle it, but equally dangerous may be our reluctance to yield the reins of control to people who *are* qualified to handle it.

some do's and don'ts

Although the role that a person is in will often have an important effect on his attitudes and orientations, simply putting him in a leadership role will not invariably make a leader out of him. Some do's and don'ts are important to keep in mind before we can be sure that the person will fit the role and the role will fit the person. Only under certain conditions will putting

a person in a leadership role result in his carrying out the responsibilities of the role and identifying himself with the goals of the organization. The results from the study at Rockwell provide a few clues about some of these conditions:

(1) *Don't* put a person into a job that is over his head. The workers who became foremen and stewards at Rockwell had the necessary abilities to carry out their jobs. *Specific skills might be picked up on the job, but basic capacities have to be present.* If a person cannot handle a responsible job, placing him in such a position might result in his becoming defensive and resenting the organization.

(2) *Don't* force a person into a job if he does not want to take it. The workers who later became foremen at Rockwell wanted to become foremen; the workers who later became stewards wanted to become stewards. Their motivation for taking these roles was largely self-oriented rather than group-oriented, but at least they *were* motivated to take these roles and to try to make a go of it. If a person is not motivated to take a role or to remain in a role, then the role is apt to have little effect on him and he in turn is apt to do a poor job of carrying it out.

(3) *Do* reward people for taking on responsible jobs. Rewards may take a tangible economic form, such as the higher wages earned by foremen at Rockwell, or less tangible psychological gratifications, such as those reaped by stewards at Rockwell. In either event, rewards of one kind or another are important to motivate people to accept and perform responsible roles. In the absence of rewards, there may be little incentive for people to tackle the problems and difficulties associated with such roles.

(4) *Do* make the authority associated with a job equivalent to the responsibilities attached to it. Having responsibility without authority makes it next to impossible for a man to do the things that are expected of him. If there was one major point of criticism expressed by a number of foremen and stewards at Rockwell, it was that they did not have enough authority to carry out their jobs. The leaders who felt that they had sufficient authority more readily took on the goals of the organization than did the leaders who felt that they had too little authority.

◇ ◇

MEASURING LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

Let's assume you have reached the point in your group where you've decided you want to learn to operate more efficiently. Perhaps the most helpful thing to do is to help the group take a look at itself—at how well the leadership services necessary for its efficient operation are being performed. The checklist on the next few pages is designed to help group leaders and members take a look at their performance of these functions.

The checklist will be most useful if a group discusses it before using it. Discussion should bring out that the checklist is a guide for identifying problems which need group attention. It is not a test. Group members will get better results, too, if they keep in mind that they are "pinning down problems" and not "answering questions". Members needn't feel concerned about coming off badly on any of the items in the checklist, for all items deal with areas in which groups frequently have difficulty.

A group will, perhaps, decide to fill out the checklist as the program activity for one of its meetings. Or it may set up a special evaluation committee to work on the checklist over a series of meetings.

The checklist is made up of 15 questions, each of which has 3 scales. It should be noted that the scales provide opportunity to measure how much the members, as well as the group leader, perform these necessary functions because it is assumed that a group operates at its greatest efficiency when members share with the leader the responsibility for the group's operation.

1 *Do we plan our meetings in relation to our objectives?*

1 2 3 4 5

1	3	5
We never preplan a meeting in the light of its special goals.	We sometimes have a rough preplan.	We always preplan meetings and submit the plan to the group for approval.

a. Does the *leader* take on this responsibility?

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

b. Do the *members* share in this responsibility?

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

2 *Do we plan our meetings in relation to what members expect from them?*

1 2 3 4 5

1	3	5
We have no way of knowing what members expect.	If members specifically request something it gets consideration.	We frequently find out what members expect before building our agenda.

a. Does the *leader* consider member expectations?

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

b. Do the *members* cooperate in informing the leader?

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

3 *Do we define or clarify our goals during meetings?*

1 2 3 4 5

We never consider goals during meetings.	We attempt to define or clarify our goals when confusion is evident.	We frequently discuss and clarify our goals.

a. **Does the *leader* suggest that this is needed?**

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

b. **Do the *members* ask for definition or clarification of goals?**

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

4 *Do we summarize our progress from time to time?*

1 2 3 4 5

We don't take the time to take stock.	We examine our progress if someone requests it.	We frequently summarize what has been accomplished.

a. **Does the *leader* take the initiative for this?**

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

b. **Do the *members* take the initiative for this?**

1 2 3 4 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

5 *Do we use suitable methods of procedure?*

1	2	3	4	5
We use pretty much the same procedures over and over.		We think about the best procedures for handling some activities but not others.		We try to select the procedure most appropriate for accomplishing each goal.

a. Does the *leader* raise questions about procedure?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* take the initiative in this?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

6 *Do we evaluate the efficiency of our methods of operating?*

1	2	3	4	5
We don't think about how well our procedures are working.		We look at our procedures only when things go wrong.		We systematically evaluate procedures to find out how well they are working.

a. Does the *leader* take responsibility for suggesting evaluation?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* take responsibility for suggesting evaluation?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

7 *Do we watch our discussion to see if we understand one another?*

1	2	3	4	5

Our discussions resemble a free-for-all.	If someone obviously misinterprets meaning he is usually straightened out.	We frequently check to be sure that every member understands.

a. Does the *leader* assume this responsibility?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* share this responsibility?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

8 *Do we test for agreement to see if we are ready to make decisions?*

1	2	3	4	5

We usually call for a vote when anyone asks for it.	We sometimes take an informal poll to see if we're ready to make a decision.	We frequently test to see that everyone is satisfied that we are ready to make a decision.

a. Does the *leader* assume this responsibility?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* assume this responsibility?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

9 *Do we invent new jobs when we undertake new activities?*

1	2	3	4	5

We always keep the same lineup of responsibilities.	Sometimes we create new jobs but usually we leave responsibilities up to the leader.	We usually create new jobs when they are needed for new activities.

a. Does the *leader* suggest possibilities for new jobs?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* suggest possibilities for new jobs?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

10 *Do we spread responsibilities throughout the group?*

1	2	3	4	5

Most responsibilities are given to the leader.	Sometimes group members share in responsibilities.	Responsibilities are widely distributed throughout the group.

a. Does the *leader* suggest that other persons participate in responsibilities?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do the *members* volunteer for responsibilities?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

11 *Do we discuss morale problems such as lack of interest, conflicts, and anxieties in the group?*

1	2	3	4	5
We never openly face these problems.		We face those problems that aren't too charged with emotion.		We accept these problems as things to be discussed and solved.

a. **Does the *leader* help the group face and solve these problems?**

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. **Do the *members* raise and try to solve these problems?**

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

12 *Do we tackle tense situations such as minority disagreement, violation of rules, no response to requests for volunteers?*

1	2	3	4	5
We try to ignore and forget such situations.		We usually settle such situations by majority vote or leader ruling.		We accept such situations as problems to be discussed and solved.

a. **Does the *leader* help solve these problems?**

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. **Do the *members* help solve these problems?**

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

13 *Do we have an atmosphere in which all feel free to express ideas and feelings?*

1	2	3	4	5
Our discussions are formal and only a minority participate.		Every one talks but some subjects are taboo.		We usually have an atmosphere of free, spontaneous expression.

a. Does the *leader* encourage a climate of free expression?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do *members* stimulate other members to express themselves?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

14 *Do members exhibit a feeling of responsibility to restrict their contributions to those which are helpful to the group?*

1	2	3	4	5
Members are "off the beam" frequently.		We wander about as much as the average group.		Members actively attempt to confine their contributions to relevant things.

a. Does the *leader* help keep the group "on the beam"?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

b. Do *members* keep on the alert for wandering?

1	2	3	4	5
Never		Occasionally		Frequently

15 *Do we freely communicate our feelings and expectations about his performance to the leader?*

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5

1	3	5
We have never brought this up.	We occasionally make suggestions to the leader.	We have regular procedures by which members can give their ideas and reactions about the group leadership.

***a.* Does the *leader* encourage members to discuss his plans and performance?**

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

***b.* Do *members* take responsibility for expressing themselves to the leader about his performance?**

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5

Never — Occasionally — Frequently

tabulating the results

When the checklists are complete a scale on which to record the group totals can be placed on a blackboard or a large sheet of paper. The total number of responses at each point on each scale should be placed above the line. If an "L" is placed at the point where the leader has checked this response it will be easy to identify the difference between his opinion and that of the members.

This kind of tabulation will bring out in an objective way the differences of opinion among the members of a group. These members will then be able to discuss operational problems frankly. The checklist provides data to enable a group to become aware of its problems, and it in-

dicates the range of feelings which group members have about these problems. Group discussion, however, should center about how to solve the problems.

The checklist can be very useful even without a tabulation of the results. A group can use it as a discussion guide, the members going through it point by point, sharing their ideas about the answers to the questions and agreeing on steps to improve their meetings.

Perhaps the greatest value of the checklist is that it is a training device in itself. Simply by discussing these questions group members become aware of their responsibilities.

using observers

Some groups have found it valuable to have an observer or team of observers make notes during meetings. A simple observation checklist is reproduced below. An observer can use this kind of chart to determine how well the leadership load is being shared by the members and what leadership functions are being overlooked. The observation checklist is designed to get information about the five aspects of group functioning.

OBSERVATION CHECKLIST ON LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS

Date------Time observed------to------Observer------

	Contributions by Members	Contributions by Leader
1. Defining and clarifying the goals		
2. Determining progress in relation to the goals		
3. Selecting the appropriate procedure		
4. Maintaining the group		
5. Helping members participate effectively		

FOR FURTHER STUDY

EXTENSION TRAINING CENTRE, T. KALLUPATTI
24 NOV 1958

GROUPS, LEADERSHIP, AND MEN. *Ed. by Harold Guetzkow, Pittsburgh: Carnegie, 1951.* Reports on research sponsored by the Human Relations and Morale Branch of the Office of Naval Research, from 1949-50.

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HOW TO BE A BETTER LEADER. *By Malcolm & Hulda Knowles. New York: Association Press, 1955.* Methods of self and group training for improving leadership.

EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN HUMAN RELATIONS. *By Henry C. Lindgren. New York: Hermitage House, 1954.* Fictional case examples of typical problems that occur when leaders work with subordinates in groups.

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"Training for Group Leadership," by Robert Schacht, National University Extension Association, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

"Guide for Group Leaders," by Per G. Stensland. Institute of Citizenship, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kansas.

Publications List of the National Training Laboratories, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Especially, "Two Lessons in Group Dynamics."

"New Light on Leadership." A workshop section in *Adult Leadership*, June, 1956. Singles copies, 65c each.

INTRODUCING THE AEA

The AEA (Adult Education Association of the United States of America) is a non-profit organization founded in May, 1951, as an instrument for developing a united adult education movement. The general purposes of AEA, as stated in its Constitution, are:

—"To further the concept of adult education as a process continuing throughout life.

—"To promote and develop adult education in the United States by affording opportunities to professional and non-professional adult educators to increase their competence and by encouraging and assisting organizations and agencies . . . to develop adult education activities and to work together in the interests of adult education.

—"To receive and disseminate information about adult education.

—"To promote the balanced development of educational services for adult persons in the United States.

—"To cooperate with adult education agencies internationally."

United in the AEA to further these purposes through a program including field services, conferences, publications, and public relations, are over 12,000 men and women who work with adults in formal and informal educational and training programs. These leaders represent every sector of American society—education, labor, agriculture, industry, religion, social welfare, government service, and a host of voluntary associations.

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Adult Education Association of the U.S.A.
743 N. Wabash Avenue
Chicago 11, Illinois